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ABSTRACT

As a model for development of instructional materials, this thesis is suggested for teachers of English-as-a-second-language who are finding difficulty in relating their students' "subcultural" background to the more dominant society. The methods described are based on nearly a decade of experience with rural schoolboys in Thessaloniki, Greece. Discussion of the nature of the local populace and the educational program at the American Farm School reflects educational problems in rural Greece. Present methods of instruction, a brief historical survey, and future educational needs are discussed. An English program is outlined and underlying linguistic theory examined. A bibliography concludes the study. (RL)

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A SUGGESTED COURSE OF STUDY
FOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
TO RURAL GREEK STUDENTS

by

PHILLIP GENE FOOTE, B.S.

THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
The University of Texas at Austin
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

August, 1971

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A SUGGESTED COURSE OF STUDY
FOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
TO RURAL GREEK STUDENTS

APPROVED:

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THE UNIVERSITY
OF TEXAS

PREFACE

In the spring of 1960, I was sent to Salzburg, Austria, as a delegate of The Disciples of Christ (The Christian Church) to a refugee relief project jointly sponsored by the World Council of Churches and the United Nations. At the close of the project, I was called from headquarters in Geneva and asked if I would like to go to Greece to replace a Fulbright English teacher who could not come over to Europe at the last minute.

After graduating in Elementary Education from The University of Texas at Austin, and doing a year of graduate work at the University of Chicago, I had returned to Port Arthur, Texas, to teach in a sixth and seventh grade non-graded program that was just beginning there. Because of this two-years' teaching experience, my name fell out of the computer, and I was offered the chance to go to Greece.

I immediately accepted and found myself in Thessaloniki, Greece, at the American Farm School two days later.

This, then, is the story of our work over a nine-year period to produce materials for rural students learning English as a second language.

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CHAPTER I

The Rural Greeks

The way of life of a rural village in modern Greece exists in a setting significantly different from that of the cultures and societies that anthropologists have traditionally studied. For years, anthropologists have concentrated their professional interests on what are usually called the "primitive" peoples of the world, such as the indigenous populations of Africa or Australia. More recently, however, these cultural and social anthropologists have turned their talents and energies toward the study of subcultures in our own "advanced" societies. The majority of those interested in learning the ways of life of the co-heirs of their own civilization have concentrated on what have been called "folk" or "peasant" societies, or to phrase them more descriptively, the rural or segregated populations of modern nations. In so doing, they have found certain recurring features that are common to many of the subculture groups.

With a potential language program in mind, let us review some basic values of the Rural Greeks:

As Sanders points out in discussing the Greeks, "The peasant is closer to the ancient Greek than is the modern city Greek whose psychological dependence is more on the legacy of imperial Byzantium than on the Parthenon."[1]

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[1] Irwin T. Sanders, Rainbow in the Rock, (Cambridge, 1962) page 10.

Historical events have done much to shape the Greek's image of himself as the true inheritor of the wisdom of the ages, pointing to the classical age and the Byzantine Empire as two of the most important periods in man's long life on this earth. Five hundred years of Turkish Occupation have drained the Greek of his vitality for life and its promises. Since the War of Independence in 1824, when the Greeks gained their freedom from Turkey, the country has hardly known a decade of peace. "In sharp contrast to the mechanized American farm of several hundred acres; they know the meaning of hunger, of poverty, of the catastrophe of war and violence, which most Americans fortunately have not had to experience, but which is all too common in the newly developing countries."[2] The manpower and physical resources that have been consumed in these conflicts have left the countryside and its people depleted. As a result, Greek pride stands on past glory, for the present state of affairs is a bitter disappointment.

The primary Greek values are rooted in traditional institutions and systems that have been consistent in time. The Greek does not plan for tomorrow, for history has taught him that destruction is just around the corner. The main feature of Greek life is its polarity. There is a constant oscillation between two extremes, excess and moderation, despair and hope, female worthlessness and male godliness, cunning and frankness. This polarity affects many aspects of the contemporary Greek life, causing inconsistencies, contradictions and even paradoxes. Friedl finds the Greek's world one of tension: "if it were necessary to describe the nature of the villagers' feelings with respect to each other and the world in one word, that word would be tension. This tension is created by some kind of struggle. Man does not always win, but he is obligated to do his best and to use skill in the struggle. Those who try may still fail, and then the villagers will turn to fate or God's will as an explanation."[3] Here the Greek is satisfied with some exterior explanation, rather than looking deeply within himself or his own powers for an answer.

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[2] Sanders, page 11.

The Greek Family: The family and family life are the basic institutions in Greek life. The patriarhal system, where the oldest living male is the head of the family, has survived throughout every disruptive influence in Greek history. Family ties are binding, and it is automatically assumed that the young will care for the old until death regardless of the burden. Children who move away from the village send money weekly to their parents as an allotment for clothes and food. In the rare cases where family solidarity breaks down and the old are not provided for, the village usually takes on the obligation of the old peoples' support.

The differentiation between mother and child, which Americans prize as a developmental goal, is not a Greek concern. The personality, the self of the child, is formed not just by associating with others, but by merging with them. In Greek there is no such word as private. Consequently, a person is produced who not only is family oriented, highly sociable, and internally supported in crises by indivisible affiliations with others, but also is highly vulnerable to the ills, moods, and evils of those around him. For him, being alone is loneliness, and loneliness is terror, for without the company of others, he feels that part of himself is missing. Blum says: "It is difficult to gain perspective when so much of oneself is in terms of others, and when one's moods and hopes may have originated with another."[4]

---

[3] Ernestine Friedl, Vasilika, A Village in Modern Greece, (New York, 1965), p. 75.

The role of the individual is usually set by the family or community and is defined as his "philotimo." This "philotimo" is officially defined as "love of honor," but it many times borders on self pride and deceit. For example, if a man has a reputation for nobility or honesty in his dealings, his "philotimo" will make it hard for him to be anything else but noble and honest in his relations with others.

Inherent in the Greek society is a fatalistic view of life. The "Fates" or God control the destiny of man, and man is a pawn in the hands of these greater forces. The force of the theory of evolution has not yet infiltrated into these societies and the members of these groups are still obsessed with the theory of eternal return. Thus, cultural progress as we know it is viewed suspiciously by these people whose only thought for tomorrow is to work and wait for the "redeemer" of all their problems. This, in part, is an explanation of the success of the recent military "coups" in Greece.

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[4] Richard Blum, ~~Health and Healing in Rural Greece~~, (Stanford, Cal.), 1965, page 39.

Traditional clannishness helps breed prejudice and suspicion. Geographical location or segregation from the whole strengthens familial ties and generates a strange concept of independence so that "goal orientation" is basically introverted, and man finds no existence outside the group. The inconsistencies that life brings are viewed emotionally, seldom rationally, and the man fluctuates between poles of excess and moderation.

Greece has not had the time, desire or recent cultural background that encourages educational improvement. Now, however, they as a nation of people, are realizing their need to cope with the changing world and develop their inherent potential. What they need, then, is a program that teaches both language and technological skills as an answer to this tradition bound dilemma of ignorance and poverty that has plagued them for centuries.

With this in mind, let us now investigate the relevance of education to such a society.

The American Farm School and its program:

The American Farm School was set up in 1904 to help the Greeks meet the challenge of the industrial and agricultural revolution. At that time, all of northern Greece, Albania, Southern Yugoslavia, and Bulgaria were still part of the Turkish Empire. Doctor John Henry House, founder of the school, had been a missionary in the Balkans for 40 years. He felt that these people needed a good technical school that gave a combination of the practical and the academic, rather than the very fashionable but foreign run finishing schools that were prevalent in that part of the world at the turn of the century. He was near retirement age and his mission board in the States denied him the right to begin such a school. Full of determination, he set up his own board of East Coast Americans and began the American Farm School with ten male students and 2-1/2 acres. Despite the historical turmoil of this part of Greece (i.e., fight for independence from Turkey, the First World War, dictators, Second World War, Communist Civil War, and the recent Military Dictatorship) the American Farm School has prospered and today has 210 male students, 50 female students and about 450 acres.

My specific job was to teach English at the American Farm School in Thessaloniki, Greece. The Farm School is today still an agricultural and industrial training school for Greek rural youth from places as far away as Egypt and southern Africa. It is an accredited gymnasium with a four year program leading to the first three years of high school diploma. (The lyceum encompasses the last three years of high school training.)

We were confronted with a problem that was not at all unusual for teachers of English as a second language in that part of the world at that time. The texts that we were given to use were not at all relevant to the needs of the rural youth of Greece at that time. They referred to kitchen utensils which no self-respecting Greek boy ever used and modern electric appliances at a time when Greece itself was without electricity. In short, they were geared to the urban youth instead of the rural youth we were teaching.

Even though the Farm School had been in existence for 50 years, no formal program for teaching English had been sustained over the previous 15 years due to the Second World War and the Communist uprising that affected most drastically that part of Greece in which the school was located. This, of course, compounded the problem as we had very little experience to draw upon in our work.

We then set about to develop a curriculum to meet the needs of these Greek youths learning English. Our purpose was two-fold. First, we wanted the boys to become proficient in the spoken language. Second, we wanted our graduates to be able to read technical material written in English. The latter would enable the graduate to be of help to his fellow villagers in new methods of agriculture that had not yet been translated into the Greek language but which were available in American and English periodicals and bulletins through our school's own extension service.

CHAPTER II

The Specific Challenge of Education

The problems of the Rural Greeks develop because the subculture is not compatible with the dominant societies in which they exist. They have developed ways of living in isolation from the rest of society. They remained apart either voluntarily or were kept apart. The Greek rural people have been segregated by both historical events and geographical isolation. The 1951-60 decade has seen amplified attempts to bring this subculture back into the main stream of contemporary life (i.e., the Marshall Plan in Greece which attempted to rehabilitate the country economically). This is another explanation of the recent "coups." Many Greeks felt they were being brought back into the mainstream of affairs too quickly. Their old ways were challenged and they reverted back to the security which their historical isolation and the Colonels offered them.

The demands of modern society stress compatibility: This demand should not be confused with conformity. We consider conformity as inconsistent with American ideas, while compatibility gives the basis for living constructively and independently. Our challenge, then, is to give all people a chance to develop and perform in a manner that is compatible with the rest of the dominant society.

The school is the most logical, public structure capable of reaching the culturally deprived, but it faces a difficult and different task in educating children of subculture groups. In educating subculture groups, the school is handicapped not only by home and community conditions, but by its own inheritance of outdated concepts of schooling. New methods, concepts, and techniques are necessary to achieve success with this group of students. The values of the teacher, the content of the program, and the very purposes of schooling that are appropriate for middle-class children will not necessarily prove effective with the disadvantaged child. In this situation the school must be flexible to accomodate and train the subculture segments of the society's children.

The Specific Problem in Greece

On every hand, one reads and is told by Greek informants that "education is perhaps the most prized goal in Greece."[5] Despite this high esteem given to education, rural boys and girls must earn theirs the hard way. "The children in our village are tyrannized. Just as they sit down to study, their mother says, 'Get up, get some water, take your papers and the goat, and take her out to pasture.' 'Get up, get some wood, go and bring in the oxen. Don't you hear? In the evening you can study.' The children go and do their different tasks and in the evening return broken with fatigue and drop off to sleep. In the morning they are cuffed by the teacher because they haven't written their lesson, and thus it goes. Black letters they learn!

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[5] Irwin T. Sanders, Rainbow in the Rock, (Cambridge, 1962), p. 241.

As if they had a lamp! Most of them read sitting on the floor; they drop their stomachs near the fireplace and read in the light of the burning wood. From exhaustion they fall asleep and there is danger that they might get burned if the elders do not pull them away. In the spring when the days are longer, they read outside; they take the hog and the goat and go here and there and read while the animals pasture. What sort of reading can they do? As soon as they start, the hog escapes here and the goat there; they try to catch the goat; the hog escapes again. They start crying and lost is the reading. They also get beaten if the animals cause damage to the crops. Most of the children work also in the field; they also do some heavier tasks. What sort of letters can they learn? It's lucky they learn as much as they do."[6]

Under Article XVI of the Greek constitution, it is obligatory for all Greek children to attend school through the eighth grade. This is supplied gratis by the State. Unfortunately, the various stamps and taxes, prohibitive prices of the school books and writing materials make this statement null and void. A student may have to travel up to 100 kilometers a day if his village has no school or if the county school is not in his village. Then, too, the Greek farmer cannot see the need of educating a son who is to farm. He will keep the one to succeed him at home and send the others off to school. Because of these combined conditions, the dropout rate in rural schools is exceptionally high. It is now estimated that "one hundred thousand children of school age are not in attendance. At about the third grade level, the number of those who started is halved."[7]

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[6] Irwin T. Sanders, Rainbow in the Rock, (Cambridge, 1962), page 243.

The language problems in Greece are numerous and varied. First, there is an internal fight as to which form of the Greek language to use. The two extremes are Kathorevousa (that used for official papers and functions) and the Demotiki (everyday-spoken Greek). Since the end of World War II, the dominant language taught in the schools has been Demotiki. However, the present dictatorship under Premier Papadoupoulous has decided that the Kathorevousa language shall be the primary language used in schools and textbooks. This formal type of Greek best enables them to instill their particular brand of nationalism upon the Greek character. This problem is far from settled as one wonders what language the next regime will choose.

Because Greece is a small and minor country in world affairs today, the majority of Greeks recognize the need of knowing a second language. Certainly it is obvious that the Greek language does not "travel" beyond the country itself. English teaching institutes are springing up all over Greece to answer growing demands. Most of these centers are ill-equipped in regard to teachers and material. I have found that the majority of teachers have only a limited reading ability of English and many times converse as poorly. In most cases, the materials used were written 50 years ago, making them obsolete and uninteresting to the students.

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[7] United States Missions to Greece, Field Service Report 701, July 7, 1964, Athens (typescript).

The rural Greek student needs English for four reasons. The first major reason is probably the most subtle of all. Since there is such a high premium placed on education, the villager who knows a second language is respected and looked to for guidance. His opinion is valued not only in matters of language and language translation (i.e., letters from abroad, tourists, etc.) but also in the area of general village organization and improvement. Secondly, English bulletins and magazines pertaining to agriculture, individual and general community development, are rarely translated into Greek until five years or more after the original publication date. Therefore, anyone fluent in the English language automatically becomes an authority on modern farming methods and business through his reading ability. In the third place, most of the machinery, both individually and agriculturally, used in Greece today is American made. In many cases, instruction for operation and maintenance is not translated into Greek. Here again, the man who can read English is desperately needed for use and maintenance of machinery. The last reason and most recent is probably the most important: America is using Greece as a "back door" into the Common Market and American industries are establishing Greek subsidiaries. Naturally, these companies are looking for fluent English speakers who can someday serve as managers and maintenance directors for their Greek branches. Obviously, then, there is a need for well supervised, up-to-date English language programs.

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A suggested General Program for Disadvantaged Children:

In a recent report of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, these special characteristics of a school program for disadvantaged children are given:

> "The successful school program attacks the problems of the culturally handicapped on three fronts simultaneously:
>
> 1. It demonstrates to pupils a close relationship between school and life;
> 2. it includes the remedial services necessary for academic progress;
> 3. and it arouses aspirations which can alter constructively the courses of young lives."[8]

Many times the first job for the school is to strive to overcome the children's hostility toward the school environment. This hostility arises because the child can see no relationship between the school, his life, and his purpose in life. The school can provide a program and activities in which he can contribute, through which he can earn the respect of others, and in which he can improve his performance. Although the program should be stimulating and challenging, if it is beyond what the student can accomplish with reasonable effort, it becomes meaningless frustrations. The teacher must judge the need for each step of the pupils' learning, and must be free to provide a program based on his understanding of the pupil, his problems, and his culture.

By these standards, very few modern Greek schools measure up to the special characteristics of a successful school program. They seem, in fact, to be going in the opposite direction:

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[8] Educational Policies Commission, Education and the Disadvantaged American, National Educational Association, Washington, D.C., 1962, pp. 15-16.

1. There is little attempt to show a close relationship between life and school. They are textbook bound, and creativity is considered a sin rather than a virtue.
2. The dictatorial methods of the classroom teacher do not enhance the possibilities of academic progress. Most children are intimidated beyond imagination; learning for the sake of learning is unheard of.
3. The school, in this kind of situation, becomes the perpetuator of the status quo and aspirations of the young are killed rather than kindled or aroused.

Past Approaches to Language Learning

The doctrine of change has certainly influenced the teaching of language during the past century. At the end of the nineteenth century, language learning emphasized grammar recitation and dictionary dexterity. The students memorized conjugations, declensions, and grammar rules; defined the parts of speech; and translated using bilingual dictionaries. They were usually, however, unable to communicate in the language or use it. In the older system of memorizing the paradigms, translation was equated with understanding, speaking, reading and writing. Today, we have learned that these are each separate and different skills, and need to be learned as such. Translation can be defended as a valuable skill in itself, but not as a substitute for practicing the language.

As modes of travel and communication began to shrink the world, and we began using language for communication rather than just an unpleasant classroom pastime, a reaction against the grammar translation method began in Europe. This new method of teaching languages was called the "direct method." The new movement insisted that foreign languages had to be learned by direct contact in meaningful situations. But, even this system was found lacking as Lado points out: "The direct method overcame the two major faults of grammar-translation methods by substituting language contact for grammar recitation, and language use for translation. The main idea of the direct method is the association of words and sentences with their meaning through dramatization and pointing. The fallacy with this method soon showed up. The direct method is valid insofar as meanings can be demonstrated. When certain structural elements of the language, though, such as prepositions, cannot be demonstrated easily, the system runs into trouble. The direct method assumed that learning a foreign language is the same as learning the native tongue. This is not wholly true, since the psychology of learning a second language differs from that of learning the first. A child learns his native language because he has no other effective way to express himself, or his wants. In learning a second language, this compulsion is largely missing since the student knows he can communicate through his native tongue whenever necessary."[9]

Lastly, the direct method never answered completely the questions raised when the structure of the native tongue confronts the structure of the second language. When a child learns his native tongue, the patterns and structure of that language are impressed on his mind. When encountering a second language with the direct method, the student always perceives this second language through the habit channels of the native tongue, thereby causing confusion and frustration in the student's mind.

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[9] Robert Lado, Language Teaching, A Scientific Approach, (New York, 1964), pp. 4 - 6.

The direct method never did gain a wide hearing in America, for Americans were historically engrossed in a policy of isolationism and cared little about being able to communicate in other languages. The direct method did, however, stimulate the thinking of American linguists who were to generate the force behind the current movement, the audio-lingual approach.

General Outline of the Present Method

The Second World War forced Americans out of their complacency and isolationism and brought the issue to a head. A system was needed whereby the student would have full power of communication. The idea of pattern practice was evolved. This system, called the oral-aural method, set out to establish as habits the patterns rather than the individual sentences. The linguists insisted on the imitation and memorization of basic conversational sentences, as spoken by the native speakers. With the basic patterns, the linguists also provided descriptions of the distinctive elements of intonation, pronunciation, morphology, and syntax that constitute the structure of the language. The linguist feels that the structure of the language gradually emerges as one masters the basic sentences and variations.

Lado lists the following methods and materials as the basis for an up-to-date language teaching program:

"1. Basic conversational sentences for memorization.
2. Structural notes to help the student perceive and produce the stream of speech and the sentence patterns of the foreign language.
3. Pattern practice exercises to establish the patterns as habit.
4. Opportunity for use of the language in communication rather than in translation.
5. Laboratory materials for oral-aural practice out of class."[10]

Recent research in the field of language learning suggests that we do not stop with Mr. Lado's suggestions. Most recently, the field of psycholinguistics has made its appearance into the field of language teaching. Psycholinguistics, as its name suggests, lies at an intersection of psychology and linguistics. As an independent discipline, it is about 25 years old. Its central task, according to Miller, is to describe the psychological processes that go on when people use language."[11] From linguistics, the new science derives insights about the system that is language - about the competence that individuals acquire when they become fluent users of their language. Some of these insights are incompatible with hypotheses about language-learning that psychologists have held for decades.

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[10] Lado, p.6.

[11] The Elementary School Journal, January, 1971, The University of Chicago Press, p. 178.

Linguistic analysis, for example, shows that it would be impossible for a child to learn to speak simply by imitating adults. The number of sentences possible in a language is indefinite - at least a hundred billion billion different grammatical twenty-word sentences could be constructed, and practically every utterance we hear or make is unique. Therefore, language must be a system, a set of rules that is capable of generating an infinite number of sentences.

We are all capable of learning what these rules are, because we are all capable of distinguishing acceptable from unacceptable grammatical constructions in our language (even if our own individual grammars vary a little from one person to another). The rules must be learned; they cannot be taught, partly because no one can say what they are.

Not even linguists can describe with any adequacy the rules by which grammatical and ungrammatical sentences can be distinguished. If linguists could, we would have computers that could converse and translate with the facility of human beings.

Linguistic analysis also shows that language has two levels - a surface structure - that is, the sounds or written representation of language ; and a deep structure - that is, meaning. These two levels of language are related in a complex way through the system of rules that is grammar or syntax. Without these rules, we could never understand a sentence because the meaning of a sentence is given not by the individual words, but by the manner in which the words interact with each other. (If it were not for syntax, "man bites dog" would mean the same as "dog bites man" and a Maltese cross would be indistinguishable from a cross Maltese).

Psychology contributes insights about how language must be learned and used. Psychology shows that there are severe perceptual limitations on the amount of acoustic (or visual) "surface structure" that we can process to comprehend language. Psychology shows that our working memory is so constrained that we could not possibly comprehend speech or writing if we analyzed individual words. Psychology also provides a wealth of data about human learning, showing, for example, that negative information can be as valuable as positive information. It can be just as instructional to be wrong as to be right, although all too frequently we are conditioned to avoid the "error" of our ways. Psychological studies show that all human beings have preferred strategies that use a small and apparently innate range of capacities for acquiring new knowledge. These studies show also that learning is rarely the result of a passive exposure to "instruction" but rather the result of an active search for specific kinds of information, which is a reason why rules can be learned but not taught.

At the intersection of these areas of psychology and linguistics lies the growing and fascinating field of psycholinguistic research confirms, for example, the linguistic insight that language is processed at deep structure levels. We remember meanings, not individual words. We distinguish elements and relationships that are not actually represented in the surface structure but are constructed from the meanings that we derive from the hidden deep structure.

Some of the most exciting advances made by psycholinguists have been in their studies of how children acquire the rules of adult language.[12] Studies show that these rules are developed rapidly between the ages of eighteen months and four years, and appear to follow a similar pattern of development in all children. This pattern, so systematic and invariant, is nothing like a miniature or deformed version of adult language. This fact has led to the suggestion that children have an innate predisposition for discovering the rules of language. The view is supported by the fact that no one can verbalize these rules to tell them to a child.

Insight of the kind found in linguistics and psychology appear to be leading to a profound review of longheld beliefs about reading and how it is learned. It is becoming clear that reading is not a process of combining individual letters into words, and strings of words into sentences, from which meanings spring automatically. Rather the evidence is that the deep-level process of identifying meaning either precedes or makes unnecessary the process of identifying individual words.

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[12] The Elementary School Journal, January, 1971, The University of Chicago Press, page 179.

The Future Needs

One of the main impediments of the disadvantaged child is language. Usually his speech patterns differ sharply from accepted English, for frequently English is his second language. This is the case of all Greek students at the Farm School. Language is often, consciously or unconsciously, a symbol of differences and identifications. Learning English well, by methods that are not threatening to the native language and all it stands for, can help the student who speaks English as a second language make a good adjustment to the situation and to the people in both his worlds.

As I have previously pointed out, one factor for teaching English at the Farm School is to improve the economic capability of each student. This, tied in with the students' vocational training, provided us with a motivational advantage that few schools have so readily accessible.

We felt that a strong program of vocational education can serve several important purposes in training the older child and as the Educational Policies Commission has pointed out:

> "1. Opportunities to learn job skills are relatively easy for the pupil to value.
>
> 2. They can increase his interest in school.
>
> 3. They can help him consider himself useful and a respected person.

4. They can develop the initiative and sense of responsibility.

5. They can be designed to introduce or incorporate lessons in science, economics or other subjects." 13

With this background in mind, then, we will attempt to construct an English language program on the Junior High School level for non-native speakers of English who have had little or no formal training in the language. Our program is being created specifically for rural Greeks. The supplementary objective of the program will be to incorporate a useful vocabulary of mechanical and agricultural terms into the basic sentence structures of the language. In order to construct this program, let us first look at a definition of language.

---

[13] Educational Policies Commission, page 18.

CHAPTER III

A Definition of Language

Before one begins to teach a language, he must produce for himself some working definition of just what language is. In a seminar course, Dr. Archibald Hill gave five defining characteristics which serve to set off language from other forms of symbolic behavior and to establish it as a purely human activity.

> "1. Language is a set of sounds. This is primarily observed as speech. Only speech provides all the essential signals of the language. Once we accept language as primarily speech, we can see that writing, and particularly letters, are only attempts to represent the sounds.
>
> 2. The connection between sounds, or sequence of sounds and objects of the outside world is arbitrary and unpredictable. This is to say that language is social and that the sounds of speech and their connection with entities of experience are passed on to all members of any community by older members of that community.
>
> 3. Language is systematic. Language entities are arranged in recurrent designs, so that if a part of the design is seen, predictions can be made about the whole of it. This leads to the observation that every occurrence of language is a substitution frame and the entities can be substituted without changing the frame.
>
> 4. It is a set of symbols that have meaning. The meaning of these vocal noises are culturally determined. They are cultural abstractions into which the event eliciting the vocal noise fits. These cultural units of meaning combine in language, forming more complex units of meaning, or messages.
>
> 5. It is complete. Whenever a human language has been

> accurately observed, it has been found to be so elaborated that its speakers can make a linguistic response to any experience they may undergo. This should not be interpreted to mean that every language has a word for everything. It is characteristic of vocabulary that, except in languages that have gone out of use, it is always expansible, in spite of the fact that resistance to new forms may frequently appear."[14]

The job of teaching English to non-English speakers can become confusing and frustrating without proper orientation. Allen suggests the following eight points as points of reference for language teachers:

"1. Language is system.
2. Language is vocal.
3. Language is composed of arbitrary symbols.
4. Language is unique.
5. Language is composed of habits.
6. Language is for communication.
7. Language relates to the culture in which it occurs.
8. Language changes."[15]

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[14] Archibald A. Hill, Introduction to Linguistic Structures, Harcourt Brace and World, Inc., (New York), 1958, pages 1 - 9.

[15] Harold B. Allen, "Face East When Facing Non-English Speakers," On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, ed. Virginia French Allen (Champaign, Illinois), 1965, page 53.

There is no basic contradiction existing between these two lists. Hill's list offers five suggestions that linguists may use in presenting a scientific analysis of language. Allen's list is intended only as a check-list from which language teachers can work in approaching language learning. Allen has broken several of Hill's definitions down into sub-definitions, so that the language teacher may better understand a problem that may otherwise be difficult and involved.

Language, then, is a system of arbitrary, social and vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture to communicate or to interact. Every language has its own recurring patterns which are meaningful to its speakers. The sounds (phonemes and morphemes) are always arranged in particular ways which convey the same meaning to all speakers of that language.

The Elements of Language

The smallest unit of full expression is the sentence, not the word, for we speak in sentences, and words are part of these sentences. Every language has a restricted number of patterns.

Example: Noun + Verb + Noun
My name is John Smith.

Noun + Verb + Modifier
The ball is here.

Parts of speech are primarily classes of words that have certain features of form in common and perform certain restricted functions. Words are made up of such elements as stems, prefixes, and suffixes. These smallest parts of expression that have some meaning are called morphemes. The English word "pens" contains two morphemes, "pen" and "s." "Pen" is both a word and a morpheme. It is a morpheme since it is the smallest unit of expression that associates with the meaning of "pen" in English. It is a word because it can occur by itself independently of any other word. "S" is also a morpheme since it is associated with the meaning "plural." It is not, however, a word, as it cannot stand independently but must be part of a word. While languages have a relatively small number of patterns of sentences, phrases, and parts of speech, they do have a large number of words.

The morphemes of a language can be broken down into smaller sound units that we call phonemes. The vocal organs are capable of making a vast number of adjustments which result in physically different sounds. No language makes use of all the possibilities, and it organizes those which it does use into contrasting units; the different sound units result in different meanings. These sound units are phonemes. The phoneme is the smallest segment of sound and is usually a range or class of sounds rather than one specific sound. For example, in English there is a definite difference between the /k/ in key and ski. Since they are of the same class of sounds, both k's are grouped under the /k/ phoneme. There is not an English phoneme which is the same in all environments, though in many phonemes the variations can be overlooked by the native speaker.

Also phonemic because they produce differences in meaning are stress, pitch, and juncture. Stress is the name given to the relative degree of loudness of a part of a word, of a whole word, or of a sentence. In linguistics, there is both word stress and sentence stress. Each sentence has at least one stress but it may have two or more, depending on the length of meaning you want to convey. There are four possible accent stresses in English:

1. The loudest is called primary and is marked /.
2. The next to the loudest is called secondary and is marked ^ .
3. The third loudest, or medium soft, is called tertiary and is marked \ .
4. The least loud, called weak, is marked U.

Pitch is the name given to the relative height of the voice in a sentence. There are four relative levels of pitch in a sentence. Most people start at pitch level 2. Pitch level 2 is normal level. The voice then usually rises to 3 and then remains at 3 or falls to 1. Level 3 is above normal and level 1 is below normal. Level 3 is usually but not necessarily the level of the stressed part of the sentence. Level 4 is way above normal. It is usually needed to express emotion, anger, surprise, etc.

i.e., 2 What are you $\overset{3}{\text{doing}}$ 1

Juncture is the name given to "boundary signals" in the language system. An utterance does not become understandable even when all its vowels, consonants and stress patterns have been recognized. It is still necessary to recognize where the boundaries fall. The position of the boundary is signaled by elements in the sound system, which are imperfectly represented in writing by punctuation marks. These boundary signals are called juncture and there are four types:

1. The fall and fade out of the voice is often designated by a /#/ (double cross).

   i.e., 2 Why did he $\overset{3}{\text{leave}}$ 1#

2. The rising and fade out of the voice is often designated by a /11/ (double bar).

   i.e., 2 Can you $\overset{3}{\text{get it for me}}$ 11

3. Sustained pitch in utterances is designated by a /1/ (single bar).

   i.e., 2 Are you $\overset{3}{\text{there}}$ 1 $\overset{3}{\text{John}}$

The previous three types of junctures we have described are terminals in that they can all occur at the ends of sentences and phrases. No sentence or phrase can end without one of these occurring. The fourth type of juncture occurs within the borders of a phrase and cannot occur at the end of either sentence or phrase. It is called internal or plus juncture and is written /+/. This type of pause is unmarked in writing.

i.e., The night rate / nait + ret/ is cheap.
The nitrate / naitret/ is cheap.

Ice Cream / ais + krim/
I scream / ai + skrim/

In the first sentence there is plus juncture between night and rate. In the second pair of sentences, the plus juncture comes between *ice* and *cream* in example 1, and between *I* and *scream* in example 2. The difference in the pronunciation of the sounds occurs by the aspiration of /k/ in cream and non-aspiration of /k/ in scream. The difference in meaning is caused only by the slight pause.

A Contrastive Analysis

Every language has its own distinctive group of phonemes, just as it has its own system of sentence patterns, intonation, stress, consonants, and vowels. The learner of English as a second language brings with him his automatic habits, both of speaking and of reacting to what he hears or reads. An analysis of his native language (in this case, Greek) compared to an analysis of English is vital to our pedagogical purposes. It is this comparison that enables us to understand our students' problems. We can see, then, why a Greek-speaker has trouble with "peach" and "pitch" and with other phonemic distinctions which do not occur in his native speech.

The following chart is a short contrastive analysis of the two languages with which we will be concerned in developing an English program - English and Greek - English as a target language, and Greek as the native language. The comparison of languages at all levels is one of our most practical tools for teaching English as a second language.

Chart is on page 31.

VOWELS

Phoneme	English	Greek
/ı/	bit	not present
/e/	bet	melani (ink)
/æ/	bat	not present
/ɨ/	system	not present
/ə/	but	not present
/a/	father	pateras (father)
/u/	book	not present
/0/	cone	avgo (egg)
/ɔ/	jaw	not present

DIPTHONGS

/ıy/	beet	ine (he is)
/ey/	bait	ine (he is)
/ay/	bite	kelaitho (chirp)
/oy/	boy	roloi (clock)
/uw/	boot	puro (cigar)
/ow/	boat	not present
/aw/	bout	peinaw (I'm hungry)

In comparing the vowel systems of Greek and English, we see that seven phonemes of English are missing from Greek. These seven sounds are new to the Greeks in learning English and must be taught as such. In any case, the teacher must be aware of and prepared for both cultural and physical sound values in the target language that are different from that of the native language.

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEMS OF TWO LANGUAGES: ENGLISH AND GREEK

Consonants

Phoneme (IPA)	English	Greek
/p/	pick	pateras (father)
/t/	tick	tote (then)
/k/	kick	sakula (bag)
/b/	bottle	bori (he can)
/d/	dot	dulapi (cupboard)
/g/	got	fingari (moon)
/č/	church	not present
/ǰ/	jeep	not present
/f/	fin	filos (friend)
/e/	thin	lathos (mistake)
/v/	vine	venzini (gasoline)
/đ/	thine	theka (ten)
/s/	sin	soros (pile)
/š/	shin	not present
/z/	zebra	venzini (gasoline)
/ž/	azure	not present
/m/	man	megalos (large)

/n/	Nan	neos (new)
/ŋ/	sing	aing'gonas (elbow)
/l/	leap	lathi (oil)
/r/	reap	simera (today)
/w/	weep	not present
/h/	heap	heri (hand)

This list summarizes some of the consonant differences between the two languages. Greek has fewer sounds made in the palatal and alveo-palatal region of the mouth than does English. Since these sounds do not exist in Greek, the teacher will have to take extra time to teach them as new sounds.

Basic Aspects of Language Learning and Application

There are four aspects to modern language learning: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This is the order in which the learner picks up his native tongue as a child and, later on, the way he should approach a foreign language. First he hears sounds and tries to understand them; then he attempts to reproduce them. Next he learns to read the written and printed symbols of the language and finally he expresses himself in written form. The modern technique should be distinguished from what has often been called the traditional approach with the modern variations "translation" and "direct." As Carroll describes it, this new method is: "...based on the scientific study of language, in which the approach is initially through form rather than meaning. It emphasizes speech before writing; it frequently entails the use of a native informant as a model of correct speech; it allows the teacher to use the learner's native language (but only for explanations of phonology, grammar, and lexicon of the target language); it stresses the importance of drill and repetition to achieve overlearning of habits; and to identify the problems which will most tax the learner, it involves a careful linguistic analysis of the similarities and differences of the learner's native language and the target language."[16] The procedure of the "new method" is, then:

1. to listen,
2. to imitate and
3. to produce with less imitation.

Reading and writing activities may come in later, but when they do, it is hoped that the learner will be asked to first read and write those sentences that he has already learned to say.

The modern language program attempts to teach an acceptable standard of a foreign language so that the student will be equipped to cope with a society that is highly critical of language performance. He needs to be equipped with the ability to use it when he must. In the following quote, notice the uselessness of the man's language learning: "Frank thought about the story that Morris had just told him. That was the big jig in his life, but where had it got him? He had escaped out of the Russian Army to the United States, but once in a store he was like a fish fried in deep fat. 'After I came here, I wanted to be a druggist,' Morris said. 'I went for a year in night school. I took algebra, also

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[16] John B. Carroll, "Research in Second-Language Learning," A Review of the Literature and a List of Research Problems, Massachusetts, 1960.

German and English. "Come, said the wind to the leaves one day... come over to the meadow with me and play." This is the poem I learned, but I didn't have the patience to stay in night school, so when I met my wife I gave up my chances.' Sighing, he said, 'Without education, you are lost.'"[17] The preceding quote is a selection from contemporary fiction. Unfortunately, the essence of the quote is not fictitious. The poem the man learned was virtually useless in regard to his actual needs for the language. The result of his accumulated frustrations with such a program made him a "dropout."

Our aim here, then, is to identify the essentials of a modern language program that stimulate the student to acquire a desired degree of proficiency in that target language, taking into consideration the learners' ages, backgrounds, needs and the opportunities to learn and use the language.

Listening and Speaking

Fries believes that learning vocabulary is not the chief problem in language learning. "It is, first, the mastery of the sound system... to understand the stream of speech, to hear the distinctive sound features and to approximate their production. A person has learned a foreign language when he has first, within a limited vocabulary, mastered the sound system, and has, second, made the structural devices matters of automatic habit. The practice which the student contributes must be oral practice. The repeated repetitions of the patterns produced by a native speaker of the foreign language is the most econonical way of thoroughly learning, for use even in reading, the structural methods of a language."[18] McIntosh follows the same line of reasoning: "The adult learner must take the same steps that an infant does. He must learn to hear and discriminate between the rhythms and intonations and significant sounds of the new language. He must learn to produce sounds that are completely new to him."[19] Huebener adds an interesting theory to this: "The basis of all language is sound. Words are merely combinations of sounds, and the printed page is a graphic representation of sound sequences. It is in these sound sequences that the ideas are contained. The hearing of a given word calls for the acoustic and the visual image of that word, from which meaning is obtained. It is very likely that our thinking is based on acoustic images, that is, sound, and that when we think, we are really engaged in speaking to ourselves. Correct pronunciation, then, is absolutely essential, for it is only through accurate acoustic images that meaning can be derived and that language becomes a reliable means of communication."[20]

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[17] Bernard Malamud, The Assistant, (New York, 1964), pp. 67-8.

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[18] Charles Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, (Michigan, 1946), page 3.

[19] Lois McIntosh, "First and Second-Language Learning," On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, (Illinois, 1965), page 82.

Investigating meaning, Finocchiaro feels that it must be associated with listening. "Although people may be able to hear an intonation pattern or a sequence of sounds and may even be able to imitate it, no real learning will take place unless they relate the sounds to words, ideas, or actions which have meaning for them. It is important that you clarify the meaning of any new expression or sentence that you are going to teach. You may prefer a song, story or dialogue which you know the student already understands. You may use any device, object, or action to make sure the students grasp the meaning of the new language item. If absolutely necessary, if the utterance, word, or sentence is not easily demonstrable, or if there is some doubt as to meaning, you may give the equivalent word, expression, or sentence in the native language, but give it only once."[21]

In addition, she points out some practical ways in which sound can be taught: "Since the spoken language is primary, the sounds of the language, called by many the stream of speech, should take precedence in our teaching. The sounds may be taught one at a time in isolation and/or by contrasting them in what is called "minimal pairs." For example, pit and pet is a minimal pair because one sound alone makes the difference in meaning. It is important, however, that a sound which may have been practiced in isolation be inserted immediately in words, phrases or sentences which have, in addition, the stress, pitch, and juncture which are characteristic of the target language. There are three essential steps in teaching students to make sounds. They must be able to:

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[20] Theodore Huebner, How To Teach Foreign Languages Effectively, New York University Press, (New York, 1959), pages 11-12.

[21] Mary Finocchiaro, Teaching Children Foreign Languages, McGraw-Hill Book Company, (New York, 1964), pages 67-8.

1. Hear the sound.
2. Identify the sound.
3. Produce the sound.

You may have to reteach them the sound or remind the students of the pronunciation of the same sound many times. Habits of using the speech organs in one's native tongue are strong. Of the three major areas of language, the sound system is the most difficult to acquire."[22]

In addition to learning the sound system, language learners must be taught the structure system of the language. Many linguists and language teachers feel this can best be accomplished through the use of basic sentences and pattern practice and drill. Lado advocates this method: "Have the students memorize basic conversational sentences as accurately as possible. Linguistics support the use of conversations because they present words in sentence structures and in context. Conversational dialogues are preferable to poetry or formal prose because conversations show a greater range of the basic constructions of the language in matter-of-fact context. Poetry uses more of the unusual constructions and the less typical variants of common constructions. Prose makes little use of questions, requests, and answers; it is characterized by longer statement patterns."[23]

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[22] Mary Finocchiaro, English as a Second Language, From Theory to Practice; Regents Press, (New York, 1964), pp. 53-55.

Memorization and insight into a pattern is not enough, however. Students have to learn the basic patterns of English thoroughly in order to be able to understand them, to respond to them, and to create similar ones on other communication situations in which they will find themselves. Learners must be taught which other words within word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.) can be used in the place (the slot) of each of the words in the pattern. In other words, they must be taught how to substitute. Example:

1. Did he go to the store this morning?
2. she
3. ride
4. office
5. yesterday

In this one sentence, there are many possibilities for substitution, i.e., she for he, ride for go, office for store, yesterday for this morning, etc. Of patterns as habits, Lado says: "To know the language is to use its patterns of construction with appropriate vocabulary at normal speed for communication. Understanding or even verbalizing a pattern may help a student to learn it but will never take the place of practicing the patterns through analogy, variation, and transformation to establish them as habits. This is pattern practice."[24]

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[23] Lado, pages 50-51.

A completely oral pattern practice might develop as follows: The students imitate the teacher-informant in producing "I must go to the library" until they produce it with relative ease. The imitation should include intonation, stress, and rhythm as well as individual sounds. When the students are producing the pattern satisfactorily the teacher-informant provides orally a word or phrase - bank, for example - which the students substitute for library as they produce the whole pattern including the substitution. They will say, "I must go to the bank." The teacher-informant continues supplying substitutes: "post office, drug store, school, bus station..."

Finocchiaro makes the following suggestions as to procedure in presenting structures:[25]

1. Motivate the new structure; that is, indicate the need for the new item or building block.
2. Review briefly familiar language items which you will need in order to present, clarify or practice with the new language item (if you are going to teach the simple present, you may wish to review expressions of time).
3. Use the structure in a normal utterance.
4. Make sure the students understand the utterance.
5. If you give the native language equivalent, do it once only.

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[24] Lado, page 51.

[25] Finocchiaro, English as a Second Language, pp. 58-60.

6. Repeat the utterance many times. The number of repetitions depends on the known sounds or sound sequences in the utterance.

7. Have the utterance repeated in chorus by the entire class several times. Give the model before each repetition you ask of the class.

8. If the sentence is long (six or more syllables), you may wish to break the sentence into smaller elements for practice. Break it up from the end. Here is the procedure:

   Sentence: He's going to read now.
   a. Say the entire sentence many times.
   b. Say "now." Class repeats "now."
   c. Say "read." Class repeats "read."
   d. Say "read now." Class repeats "read now."
   e. Say "going to." Class repeats "going to."
   f. Say "going to read now." Class repeats "going to read now."
   g. Say, "He's going to read now." Class repeats, "He's going to read now."

9. Engage in group repetition of the same sentence.

10. Have individual students repeat the same sentence.

11. If there is an error in pronunciation, you say the sentence and engage the class in choral, group, or individual repetition again.

12. Using familiar vocabulary only, give other sentences which illustrate the point you're teaching and have the students repeat them. Example: The pencil is red - pen; book...

The Vocabulary

There seems to be general agreement among both teachers and linguists that at the beginning level we should concentrate on the function words and the more frequently used vocabulary items which are needed to give practice in the basic structures and sounds of the language. We should also give precedence to the vocabulary which is intimately related to the environment and experiences of the pupils.

Lado makes the following comment on the subject: "Keep the vocabulary load to a minimum while the students are mastering the sound system and grammatical patterns. The attempt of many students to concentrate on learning vocabulary at the beginning is misguided. Linguistics shows that words, no matter how many, do not constitute a language. The most strategic part of a language for use is the system of basic patterns and significant sound contrasts and sequences. Every effort should go into teaching these elements; hold the vocabulary load at first to the words needed to manipulate the patterns or illustrate the sounds and contrasts. Expand the vocabulary to adequate levels and teach specialized vocabularies when the basic structures have been mastered."[26]

There is one answer to the question of how many new words can be taught in each lesson. It depends on the level of the class. Children of eight or nine may learn four or five new words; children of ten to twelve may learn seven or eight; secondary school students may learn fifteen to twenty; while highly motivated university students may learn thirty or more.

Vocabulary should always be taught in normal speech utterances and should always be introduced in known structures. Not all of the words a student hears during any lesson need become part of his "active" vocabulary during the lesson. Some words in the new language will remain "passive;" that is, we will understand them when we hear them or read them, but we don't use them ourselves in speaking or writing. The vocabulary for active use, however, should be systematically presented and practiced.

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[26] Lado, Language Learning, p. 52.

Reading and Writing

Of all the problems involved in teaching English as a second language, possibly one of the most complex is that of teaching reading and writing. The basic problem is helping the student make the transfer from auditory signs to visual signs. Every language, native or second, has a built-in set of signals that triggers responses in each individual. The process of learning to read is the process of transfer from the auditory signs for these language signals to the new visual signs for the same signals.

One of the basic principles of the oral-aural method in language teaching is that the spoken language must come before reading and writing. The fields of history, sociology and anthropology give us evidence that nowhere in our accumulated historical records has there been a people without a verbal, structured language code, fully capable of dealing with their whole experiences. In comparison with this ancient activity of speaking, the processes of reading and writing are much later inventions. Reading and writing, then, were invented to represent human language. The modern language program approaches the teaching of reading and writing much the same way, for these two skills are taught only after the structures of the language have been learned verbally.

We should never confuse a spoken system with its writing system for they are basically different. Learning to speak and understand means learning a language. Reading and writing imply that the language is known and that we are learning a graphic representation of it. The process of receiving a message through "talk" is a response to the language signals of a language code. These language signals make their contact with the nervous system by sound vibrations through the ear. The process of getting the same message by "reading" is a responding to the same set of language signals of the same language code, but the language signals make their contact with the nervous system by light vibrations through the eye. The message is the same, the language code is the same, and the language signals are the same for both talking and reading. The only essential difference here is the fact that in "talk" the means of stimulation are sound waves and in"reading" the means of stimulation are patterns of graphic shapes. All reading, then, is the substituting of patterns of graphic shapes to represent the language signals of a code for the latterns of sound waves that have been learned as representing the same language signals.

The essence of reading readiness is the pupil's understanding that the language he hears and speaks can be represented graphically in writing and print and that the writing and print he sees can be something to him.

A recent study by Gray for UNESCO points out that the highly specialized methods of teaching reading of the past have lost many of their distinctive features as efforts have been made to improve their effectiveness: "Two distinct trends have arisen. Most of the methods now used combine into a single program techniques which formerly characterized particular methods and they are based more and more on the immediate interests of the pupils. These trends are consistent with the results of psychological studies."[27]

In examining the current methods in use, he concludes: "On the evidence now available, it is impossible to determine which of the current methods of teaching reading is the 'best.' Each has advantages and limitations, and no method produces the same results in all situations. The findings suggest that many factors affect progress in learning to read. Different methods emphasize different aspects of reading and start the pupils on different roads to maturity in reading. To become an efficient reader one must sooner or later acquire maturity in all the essential aspects of reading. As a rule, the best results are obtained by stressing both meaning and word recognition from the beginning. However, many procedures have to be adapted to the culture, the language, and conditions and needs peculiar to each area. A sound reading program for a given community can best be planned by those who have a clear understanding of both the basic principles that apply everywhere and local conditions and needs. The value of supplementary aids in teaching should be kept clearly in mind."[28]

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[27] William S. Gray, The Teaching of Reading and Writing, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, (Paris, 1956), p. 98.

Reviewing current methods of teaching reading, Strang asks the question: "Should we not use the best elements of all the current methods, flexibly as appropriate to the particular group we are educating, and in accord with sound principles of teaching beginning reading? Such a program would take into account:

1. The individual child's physical, intellectual, emotional, and social readiness to learn to read.
2. First words and other beginning reading material of personal significance to him in his culture.
3. Understanding of the nature and structure of the English language.
4. The use of the psychology of learning and motivation.
5. The methods and materials that creative teachers have found effective." 29

Learning to read means developing a considerable range of habitual responses to a specific set of patterns of graphic shapes. Habit develops only from practice and the teaching of beginning reading must be conceived in terms of imparting opportunities for practice with these graphic shapes. Lado suggests "Present the written representation of patterns after they are spoken by the student. For practice, have the students speak the patterns using the written representation as a stimulus. The symbols and problems they do not yet understand will be carried by identifying the pattern from the symbols that are regular and the problems that have been studied."[30] Implied in Lado's remarks is the thought that before effective reading teaching can begin, certain mechanics of the language must be taught. Before a student begins to associate printed words with meaning, he must understand how a printed word is related to a spoken word. He needs to understand that each printed word in English:

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[28] Ibid., p. 116

[29] Ruth Strang, "Teaching Beginning Reading: An Introduction and Summary," On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, (III, 1965), pp. 76-77.

1. stands for a spoken word and
2. has the same meaning.

The majority of the linguists feel that from the beginning of the reading process, the student should be able to identify and distinguish the graphic shapes of letters as can be shown by automatic responses of recognition. Lado goes even further: "It will usually be profitable to teach the alphabet of syllabary by heart. The names of the letters often illustrate the regular sound symbols associations. Care must be taken to show that the phonemes are central and regular and that any discrepancies are imperfect representations rather than the other way around."[31]

For starting the reading process, the beginner does not have to have a recognization control of the entire alphabet. Some letters occur much less frequently than others (q, z, x, v, and j). The first materials to be read, however, should be recognized in contrast with one another (i.e., b versus d). Once, however, the major regularities of the relation between a writing system and the spoken system it represents are taught, the problems of irregularity have to be taught more gradually. For example, the fact that English /k/ can be represented by k and ch as in king and chemistry, and the ch, in turn, can represent /č/ in church and /š/ in machine, is a problem of irregularity.

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[30] Lado, p. 137.

[31] Lado, p. 136.

Taking up each word as a separate problem is inefficient. We should teach patterns of representation. For example, English /i/ is most often represented by i between consonants: bit, fill, win, principle. Teach this pattern as such. Lado feels that exceptions should be taught as needed, and not memorized as exceptions to a rule. "Such memorization is painful and useless for the most part, since the students do not need to know the exceptions as a list but individually as items."[32]

Psycholinguistic techniques are beginning to be applied directly to the study of learning to read. They show that the type of information a child requires is not best presented in the form of stereotyped classroom or textbook rules and exercises. Rather, a child appears to need to be exposed to a wide range of choices so that he can detect the significant elements of written language. Experiments have shown that even beginning readers look for and use orthographic, syntactic, and semantic redundancy in written language; but whoever thinks of trying to "teach" a child about that? The child learning to read, like the child learning to speak, seems to need the opportunity to examine a large sample of language, to generate hypotheses about the regularities underlying it, and to test and modify these hypotheses on the basis of feedback that is appropriate to the unspoken rules that he happens to be testing.

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[32] Lado, p. 136.

None of this can be formalized in a prescribed sequence of behaviorally stated objectives embalmed in a set of instructional materials, programmed or otherwise. The child is already programmed to learn to read. He needs written language that is both interesting and comprehensible, and teachers who understand language-learning and who appreciate his competence as a language-learner.

The value of psycholinguistics, we are firmly convinced, lies in the new understanding it can give us all about the reading process and learning to read. But, as K. S. Goodman points out, "First, because the discipline of psycholinguistics is new, especially in its application to reading, it is far too early to derive rigid practical conclusions from the data that has been collected. But second, because as we have already asserted, the data clearly indicates that the "revolution" that psycholinguistics might create in reading pedagogy lies in a richer understanding of what the child is trying to accomplish and of his superb intellectual equipment.

We do not deny that there might be a psycholinguistic approach, or attitude, toward reading. In such an approach, the adjective 'psycholinguistic' would be synonymous with 'objective,' 'analytical,' or 'scientific.' But in phrases such as 'psycholinguistic primer' or 'psycholinguistic kit' the adjective would be devoid of meaning.

Nor do we deny that materials for reading instruction could be improved both in their construction and use by the insightful application of psycholinguistic knowledge. Enlightened teachers do not need to wait for new materials. They can make much more effective use of existing materials simply by viewing the reading process as one in which the developing reader functions as a user of language. It may well be that such teachers will find themselves rejecting large portions of the materials and the accompanying guide books as inappropriate, unsound, and even destructive."[33]

This Author's Procedure in Teaching Reading

Many teachers have long felt that a natural way for a child to understand what reading really is is to observe the recording of his own speech and the speech of others with the letters of the alphabet. Allen and Lee have pointed out that speaking and reading relationships are matured by the use of experience-reading charts based on specific experiences and activities translated into written symbols. "There are several forms of charts which are appropriate and valuable in teaching language relationships:

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[33] K,S. Goodman and C. Burke, "Study of Children's Behavior While Reading orally," Final Report, (United States Office of Education Project S425, 1968), p. 52.

1. Personal language charts which are a record of children's own language.
2. Work charts which are developed with children to give organization and guidance to classroom activities.
3. Narrative charts which might be records of shared experiences of the group.
4. Reading skill charts which are developed in the classroom for teaching and practice of some specific reading skills."[34]

The use of charts of this type are effective in teaching other important skills such as:

1. Sounding out words as they are said and written down.
2. Developing awareness of sentence structure.
3. Emphasizing word structure when adding s, ed, ing, etc.
4. Using context clues to recognize a word that looks like another word.

In an attempt to make the transfer process easier from the oral to the written language for rural Greek boys, we have been experimenting with several different ideas. From the beginning it was decided that, if possible, it would be helpful to the students if we could teach reading by a process that would bring all their senses into play and focus them on the beginning reading problem. Not only did we (I and the two teachers under my supervision) want to stimulate their senses of sight and sound but also their sense of touch. The idea is not a new one. The Scott-Foresman Co. has been pushing it for many years in their beginning reading program with their "wall reading chart." The only basic difference between the Scott-Foresman program and our program is the materials taught. Scott-Foresman is still teaching the "Look, look. Mother has the ball." We, on the other hand, are teaching what we feel are more useful and realistic sentence patterns and constructions.

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[34] R. V. Allen and Doris M. Lee, Learning to Read Through Experience, (New York, 1963), pp. 48-58.

Our technique is very simple. First we teach a story or dialogue by the oral-aural method. When we feel that the students have mastered the patterns and constructions involved in the dialogue or story, we begin to teach reading by letting them see these same words as we put them onto a "reading board." This board is constructed of plywood and has slots of tin (or any other available metal) running from left to right, like the lines in a book. Since the student has already mastered the sentence orally, his attention is drawn to these graphic symbols and their shapes. He begins to associate similarities and differences between the phonemes and their graphic representations.

This is very limited in the beginning. The first introductory lesson is a very easy construction: "This is a book." The teacher reads each word or part of a word, depending upon the difficulty and problems involved, as he places the words into the slots on the board. The following exercise is one we have developed that uses the students' experiences and idiolect in one dialogue:

"The Dairy"

Student A: Excuse me. Where is the dairy?

Student B: It's at the end of the road.

Student A: Do I continue straight ahead?

Student B: Yes. Are you going to buy milk?

Student A: Yes, of course. What else do they sell there?

Student B: Cream, cheese, and ice cream.

Student A: Fine. How about eggs?

Student B: You can get them across the street at the poultry department.

Student A: When does the dairy house close?

Student B: At one o'clock. You've got plenty of time.

In this exercise the following patterns and items were covered:

Patterns: Question + Verb + Noun

Do + Noun + Verb

Question + Noun + Do + Noun + Verb

Question + Do + Noun + Verb

Question + About + Noun

Phrases: At + Noun (place)

At + Noun (time)

Idioms: Got + plenty of
Straight ahead

After this lesson is taught orally, we use each sentence with substitution drills.

Example: Excuse me. Where is the dairy?
barn?
poultry house?
pig pen?
carpentry shop?

As the students give the dialogue orally, we put the sentences up on the board (word by word or phrase by phrase). After repeating the process many times, the teacher asks one of the faster students to put the sentence onto the board. The student goes to the board and places the words in a line so that the correct sentence is formed. Later the teacher may wish to scramble the words and let the students unscramble them to make the correct sentence. Not only does this method give the teacher a picture of the students' comprehension, but should the student make a mistake, the teacher is quickly able to correct the faulty sentence construction and give further drill in areas that cause trouble for a majority of the students. This technique also helps the student to further broaden his comprehension of the language by allowing him to construct the sentence patterns that are necessary for mastery of the language both mentally and physically. The two senses of hearing and seeing are mentally stimulated. The third sense of touch is physically and mentally stimulated by the manipulation of the cards with the letters, words and phrases written on them. In our opinion, this is an excellent way to lead into the fourth skill in language-learning, which is writing.

Fries [35] divides the process of learning to read into three different and separate stages. The first stage is the transfer stage. This stage is complete when, within his narrow linguistic experience, the student can respond as rapidly and accurately to the visual patterns that represent the language signals in this limited field as he does to the auditory patterns they replace. In this stage the /v/ phoneme becomes the grapheme v.

The second stage of learning to read covers the period during which the responses to visual patterns become habits so automatic that the graphic shapes themselves sink below the threshold of attention. Here the reader begins to supply those portions of the signals which are not in the graphic representation themselves. The /k/ phoneme is recognized in both king and chemistry.

The third stage begins when the reading process itself is so automatic that the reading is equally with the live language in the acquiring and developing of experience. Here the transfer from the spoken language to the written language is complete.

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[35] Charles Fries, Linguistics and Reading, Holt, Rhinehart, and Winston, Inc., (New York, 1963).

The fourth and last of the communication skills we must develop in our students is that of writing. Finocchiaro defines writing as: "...the carefully guided marks on paper that we assist our students in making...unless we are teaching a course in creative writing or advanced composition." [36]

The type of writing system (Roman, Greek, Chinese) which exists in the native language is an important factor in determining the ease or speed with which our students learn to write. In the case of the Chinese learning English, the student will have to learn an entirely new writing system. This is only partially true in the case of the Greek student learning English. In both cases, however, teaching these students to write English means teaching them to write the letters of the Latin alphabet before they can write anything. Knowledge of the Latin alphabet means knowing the symbols that will represent the utterances he has in mind and how to put them down.

There is a long road between writing symbols slowly and carefully, paying attention to the strokes, and writing at a useful speed for communication. We must help the student establish the habits involved in writing, from the initial traces up to a point when the particular strokes are handled automatically without awareness.

Fries, Lado and Finocchiaro all agree that, though experimental evidence is lacking, a very good way to provide extensive early writing practice is to have the students copy large amounts of texts that they have read. "Instruct the student to take a phrase at a time, write it down, then check it against the text. This provides a model, exercise, and reinforcement. .. The chief drawback of this practice is monotony. Students soon tire of this and find excuses not to continue. Additional motivation can be provided, however, by giving short dictation from the text as quizzes and showing the students their progress."[37] Later on, after the students have mastered many of these physical problems in writing, they can be asked to write substitute words in frames for sentence structures they already know. Much later the children can even be asked to answer questions with full sentences.

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[36] Finocchiaro, English as a Second Language, P. 76.

Once the student learns how to write, he may begin to write in order to inform. This is composition. Composition is communication and learning, whether it be a report for the teacher, an informal friendly letter, or a business communication. Lado says that to teach a student to write means that the student must:

"1. have something to say on the topic;
2. have a point of view or focus;
3. follow accepted conventions of format; and
4. be effective." [38]

No skill is developed without continuous and intensive practice. No skill can be maintained unless it is used frequently. It is a major responsibility of the teacher of English as a second language to plan for continuous and intensive practice in the material which has been taught, and to see that this material is constantly reintroduced and consolidated with new materials for the language learner.

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[37] Lado, p. 145.

[38] Lado, p. 146.

CHAPTER IV

PROPOSED COURSE OF STUDY AND CONCLUSION

In the field of teaching English as a second language, there is a definite need to supplement the present programs with material pertinent to the specific needs of the students involved. It is the intention of this thesis to propose a course of study and to explain how the adaptations that this author has made in teaching English as a second language to Greek rural students could be used as a model for any English language program course of study that has been written up to this time.

In every nation in our world today there are individuals who do not or cannot rise to the challenge of progress that dominates the thinking of modern man. As technology and social skills become more specialized and demanding, relatively small groups, or sub-segments, in every society, i.e., the rural dweller, the non-white, the disadvantaged, the migrant worker and other similar occupational and ethnic groups, are separated from the mainstream of life. Why? One answer is that these small groups have not had or have not taken the chance to develop in social, technological or cultural areas as has the majority of the society. While many in these "culturally deprived" groups are victims of prejudice, some of their difficulties in adapting to life either urban or rural, stems from the true inadequacies of their cultural backgrounds as a basis for adapting to the modern environment in which they must compete and communicate. The unrealized promise in these underdeveloped minds is of concern to us all. Effective communication with these people, then, is a key to solving their needs. Because the English language will probably be the dominant language used in the future for solving these cultural problems and problems of international concern, it is imperative that we develop English language programs to meet these needs.

Since the end of World War II, there has been a steady increase in the production of materials dealing with language teaching. As the "new" aural-oral method has established itself as the dominant technique in language teaching, more and more concern is being voiced as to the need for additional specialized language programs that deal with the minor segments of each culture previously mentioned. Both teachers and linguists are finding that no one language program can be used effectively for an entire culture.

In the area of teaching English as a second language, many books and programs have been published that purport to teach the student to converse in and read and write English. In many cases these programs, i.e., The American Book Company's "Let's Learn English," are a failure with the members of the sub-segments in society. Either the culture or the age level content is not appropriate for teaching particular kinds of students, i.e., young vs. mature, the language essentials that they need and must have in order to use English effectively in their jobs as well as in their social contacts.

At this time, there is not an effective English language program that begins with a secondary school non-speaker of English and develops a course of study that includes both the cultural and technological language prerequisites necessary for a subculture student to adequately assimilate and adjust to a modern, complicated society. The reason for this lack is economics. Most publishers today are publishing for a world market. Their concern is to develop books and programs that can be used by a national bracket rather than the needed regional segments. They assume that the teacher will make the necessary adjustments and additions in the program. This, however, is not the case. Many times the teachers are not equipped to make such additions in the native language as well as in English that will bridge the gap between the student's background and the society in which he must compete.

We found in Greece that the most useful of these "world market" books was English for Today published by The National Council of Teachers of English and McGraw-Hill. The approach, the lexicon, and the interest level generated through the layout and the story selections met most of our needs. This we used as a basis for structuring the content of our three-year course.

The following is a suggested course of study of items to be covered in a three-year course of English as a second language. The author wrote the suggested program while serving in Greece as a Fulbright teacher for the American Farm School. As previously mentioned, this school is concerned with the training of rural farm boys in modern methods of agriculture and mechanics. We suggest that this course of study could be easily adapted to schools in the Balkans which are similarly interested in training students who have had no English, but who will seek work in agriculture or industry.

The Proposal

This proposal for a three-year course is divided into 4 areas: pronunciation, structure, vocabulary and reading, composition. To structure the course, we used English for Today. All the following material can be covered if the class meets four or five times a week for 30-45 minutes each period.

A. Pronunciation - The First Year

1. Recognition and production of the phonemes and prosody of American English. Cut-off point: Intelligibility. A Greek accent will surely result among most students because they will accommodate the sounds and rhythms of English to Greek. Whenever this interference threatens or obscures communication in English, remedies must be used, usually further group of individual practice and drill in the sounds or prosodic patterns misused.

2. Materials for this part of the course will be those on charts published by the following companies:

    a. The American Book Co. charts, originally published to accompany "Let's Learn English."

    b. Service Wall Charts published by Longmans of London.

    c. Individual pictures of tools collected by the teacher.

    d. 200 Basic Words (Flashcards) Oxford Press, London.

    e. Pronunciation by Lado and Fries.

B. Structure - The First Year

Texts like H. V. King's Modern American English (Longman's) and Let's Learn English (American Book Company) can be used also in the structure course.

1. The term structure refers to both morphology and syntax. These are skills and habits we would present for student mastery during the first year:

   a. (1) The singular and plural forms of high frequency nouns (count, mass, collective) presented in simple sentences using the verb be. Objective: Noun-Verb agreement within normal word order.

      (2) Types of determiners and their substitution with nouns (this, that, these, those).

   b. Making questions through inversion of statement word order.

   c. (1) The personal pronouns as substitutions for nouns (#1) and repetition of Lesson #2, treatment of gender in English.

      (2) Determiners used in place of nouns.

   d. (1) The use of structure word there in there is and there are structures.

      (2) The introduction of not to pattern with verb be and no to pattern with nouns.

      (3) Repetition of Lessons 1, 2, and 3. The use of contracted forms (he's, they're, it's).

   e. (1) Introduction of the auxiliaries BE, HAVE, AND DO and their agreement with nouns in simple sentences using high frequency verbs. Objective: Third singular and aux. + Verb-ing agreement. Use of contracted forms.

      (2) Contrast of "simple present" (iterative) and "present continuous" (immediate).

      (3) Use of DO + not + various verbs in statements.

   f. Making "discontinuous" questions with auxiliaries and auxiliaries + negatives. DO and DO + HAVE (or + negative) are very important.

g. Review of Lessons 1-6.

h. (1) High frequency verbs (#e) inflected as preterit and past participle forms.

   (2) Contrast of "simple past" and "present perfect" to illustrate time and aspect.

i. Repetition of e (2) contrasted with g (2): simple present/simple past; present continuous/present perfect; simple past/present perfect.

j. Auxiliaries was, were, been and has, have and had to pattern as (BE + Verb-ing - past continuous; HAVE + BEEN + V-ing - present perfect progressive; HAD + past perfect.)

k. Making questions from statements using the various tenses.

l. Review of present and past forms of the verbs selected in both statement and question patterns.

m. The modal auxiliaries used for future tense (will, going to), for condition (would, could), obligation (must, have to, can), etc., in statements. Ditto in questions, including Modal + there + BE.

n. Statements making use of all auxiliaries, modals, and the negative contrasted with questions using sets of "question words" : who, what, which + noun; when, where, why, how, how much, many, far, long, etc.; question tags - isn't he, don't they, etc.

C. Vocabulary and Reading - First Year

The act of reading silently or aloud, as such, should not be stressed unduly, nor should reading for comprehension be the aim of this segment of the language course. The reading course should integrate structure and vocabulary visually; what students have learned to produce in the other two segments of the English program should simply be presented as written discourse for them to recognize and deal with; reading thus becomes a visual reinforcement of oral habits. Consequently, reading materials should be carefully controlled so that they contain structural patterns, sound features and lexicon already encountered, orally understood and orally produced. The "reading board" mentioned earlier would be an extra teaching aid here.

D. Composition - First Year

It is possible to begin composition with a new book published by Longmans in 1967 (Progressive Picture Compositions by Donn Byrne). This is a structured series beginning with present tense and moving on to past, etc., gradually. It's a series of pictures that tell a story, and each student makes up his own from the pictures. It is much more creative than the usual fill-in-the-blanks.

E. In order to meet the needs of our subculture group (the rural population) we developed supplementary materials in the form of dialogues to be worked in with part A (Pronunciation). Here are several examples:

1. What is John doing today?
   He's working in the garden.
   Is he planting seeds?
   No, he's not planting seeds today.
   He's pulling weeds and watering the vegetables.
   What kind of vegetables?
   Spinach, radishes, and peas.

2. Where were you last week?
   I was in Austria.
   Was it cold?
   No, but it was cloudy.
   Was there any snow?
   There was snow on the mountains, but it
   was raining in the valleys.

3. Where did you work yesterday?
   I worked in the paint shop.
   What did you do?
   I painted some chairs and tables.
   How many hours did you work?
   I worked about two hours.

4. Who called you up yesterday?
   My parents did. They called me up from the village.
What did they want?
   They wanted to tell me about their trip.
Where did they go?
   They went to Athens a month ago.
When did they get back?
   They got back yesterday.

5. When were you born?
   I was born in ____.
Where were you born?
   I was born in Greece.
What village were you born in?
   I was born in ____.
How tall are you?
   I am ____ centimeters tall.
How much do you weigh?
   I weigh ____ kilos.

A. Pronunciation - Second Year

1. Memorization of short dialogues and classroom presentation of new dialogues should be the burden of this part of the course. Review of previously learned dialogues through questions presented by the teacher to student and student to student is a reasonable way to check on recall and adequate production of sounds and structures.

2. Materials should come from local topics of interest. Effective dialogues at this level are probably those which limit each speaker to three to five lines. They could be modeled after the dialogue included in this paper on page 55 and the following:

1. Can you speak English?
   Yes, I can.
I have a map, but I can't read it.
   Let me see it.
Where is Kavala?
   Here it is - between Thessaloniki and Komotini.
Can I take this road?
   Yes, you take the road that goes east.
Thank you.
   You're welcome. Have a good trip.

2. Do you want to go to Salonika together?
I want to, but I can't.
Why can't you?
Because I have to build a beehive.
What'll you build it with?
I'll use wood and wire.
Let's build it together. It won't take more
than two hours. Then we can go to Salonika.

3. Hello. What are you doing?
I'm making a cement block form.
Do all the boys make their own forms?
Yes, all of us make a form.
If you're not careful, you'll burn yourself.
Don't worry. I'll be very careful.

4. If you had a tractor, would you drive it?
I would if I could, but I can't.
Why can't you?
Because I don't have a license.
Couldn't you get one if you wanted it?
I don't think I can pass the test.

5. Are you going to the football game?
I'd like to go, but I may be working late.
Are you going?
I can't make up my mind. I might go, and I might not.
If you decide to go, call me at Dave's house.
Okay. But I might go somewhere else instead.
That's all right. I have to be in early anyway.

6. George used to swim very well.
He still does, but John swims better than
George now.
I like to swim because it's fun.
I do, too, but I'd rather play football. I
like football the best of all.
Not me. I like basketball, but I'm not very good.
Don't worry. If you're patient, you'll learn.

7. You know my grandfather is 75 years old today?
Really? He doesn't look that old.
That's because he used to walk ten kilometers
every day. Now he's too old to walk that much.

Your smaller brother looks like him. Maybe he'll be like your grandfather.

I don't know. He's still very young. He isn't able to walk yet.

Well, when he learns to walk, we'll see.

B. Structure - Second Year

1. Statements contrasted with requests and commands (structure words; please and let's). Requests and commands contrasted with questions (will/shall, would/could, may/can, etc.).
2. a. Expanding subjects and predicates: the order of single-word and phrasal modifiers before and after nouns and verbs.

   b. Shift in sentence stress (the movement of primary stress from one item to another) in expanded sentences.
3. Review of Lessons 1 and 2.
4. Passive constructions in statements and questions.
5. The indirect object; contrasted with the direct object/with the object complement. Application of #4 to this material.
6. To-Verb and Ver-ing constructions in various positions in simple sentences.
7. Combining "constituents" (structural elements) and whole sentences through the use of coordinating conjunctions (two sets: and, but, for, or, etc., and therefore, however, consequently, etc.). Contrast of these two types of "coordinators" in structural elements and simple sentences.
8. Combining simple sentences; subordinating conjunctions.

Diction should deal with materials taught as speech and writing. Fifteen minutes a week should be allotted to diction.

C. Composition

Simple composition could consist of having students write a passage consisting of one paragraph. The content should be suggested by a topic sentence dealing with a familiar object, action, or experience.

King's Modern American English Book II, English This Way (3 and 4: McMillan), or English for Today, first part of Book II could be used and adapted for the structure course.

Other sources which would prove helpful as models are those in Sentence Structure (Lado-Fries) or those in English Dialogue for Foreign Students. (Angela Parators, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc.) Additional information might be gained from Easy English Dialogues by Michael West (Longmans, 1963) Books I and II; Conversation Exercises in Everyday English by M. F. Jerrom and L. L. Szkutnik (Longmans, 1965).

D. Vocabulary and Reading - Second Year

There are numerous readers that picture life inside the U.S.A. A few of these are the Dixson Series, Grant Taylor's American Reader, McGillivray's Life with the Taylors, and Virginia French Allen's book, People in Livingston. This book would include ideas of the culture content of the community in which the course is being taught, some of its inhabitants, and their social, economic and political interactions. I feel that such a reader would have utility both linguistically and culturally; it would be relevant; its source would be familiar, but its language would represent in both expression and content, skills and information, the matter to be learned.

This reader should be specially prepared, and it should contain about fifteen passages. I would suggest the following criteria as a guide to the writers:

1. The pieces should use simple exposition or dialogue or a combination of these to present its contents (See Allen, she does this effectively).

2. Each piece should be related to preceding work in phonology and structure. New material should be confined to lexical material; new structural or phonological patterns should be taught orally before being read.

3. The content should attempt to clarify for the student the patterns of culture of the community in which they are living. Many of these students are unconscious of the behavior of such a society; they have very little objectivity about it. Making them conscious of it would be one of the two aims of the reader. The other aim, of course, is teaching them English in its written form.

A. Pronunciation and Oral Work - Third Year

1. Public Speaking: Topics could be of local origin, and individual "speeches" should be limited to three minutes.

2. Group Discussion: A tape containing some matter of interest to everyone could be used; 3-5 minutes worth. Prepared lists of questions about the material heard could be used to generate discussion. In case of dispute over information, the tape could be run again. The skills of listening and controlled

use of previously learned materials (pronunciation, structure, and vocabulary) could be demonstrated and evaluated.

B. Structure - Third Year

1. Review of parts 4 through 8 (page 70).
2. Combining simple sentences: ellipsis (Verb-ing structures, apposition, various types of omissions and partial repetitions, etc.)
3. Mobility of certain structural elements: certain adverbs, prepositional phrases, verb-ing phrases, coordinators, subordinate structure, and "particles" in two-word verbs (look up, take out, put on, etc.).
4. Dictation and simple composition should be carried over from the previous year's work.
5. Letter writing, which should be confined to:
    a. Brief familiar letters to someone who doesn't know about life in their community. Encourage Pen Pals.
    b. Simple business letters requesting information about something, applying for employment, requesting subscription to a publication, etc.

C. Vocabulary and Reading - Third Year

Materials for this course should move from the ethnocentric concerns of community life to a broader ideological theme; Man and Nature. Ten to fifteen pieces of fiction and non-fiction selected by the teacher would accommodate this idea. I would suggest that such materials be in their original state (non-simplified) so that their content and expression remain unimpaired. Books IV, V, and VI of the English for Today series should

CONCLUSION

The preceding course of study is an answer to some of the previously mentioned problems of modern language programs. It does include enough cultural and technological language drills to familiarize and prepare the student for competition in a modern complicated society. We hope that teachers of English as a second language who are finding difficulty in relating the sub-culture student's background to the more dominant society can use this program as a model, adapting it as they believe necessary to the specific needs of their students.

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VITA

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